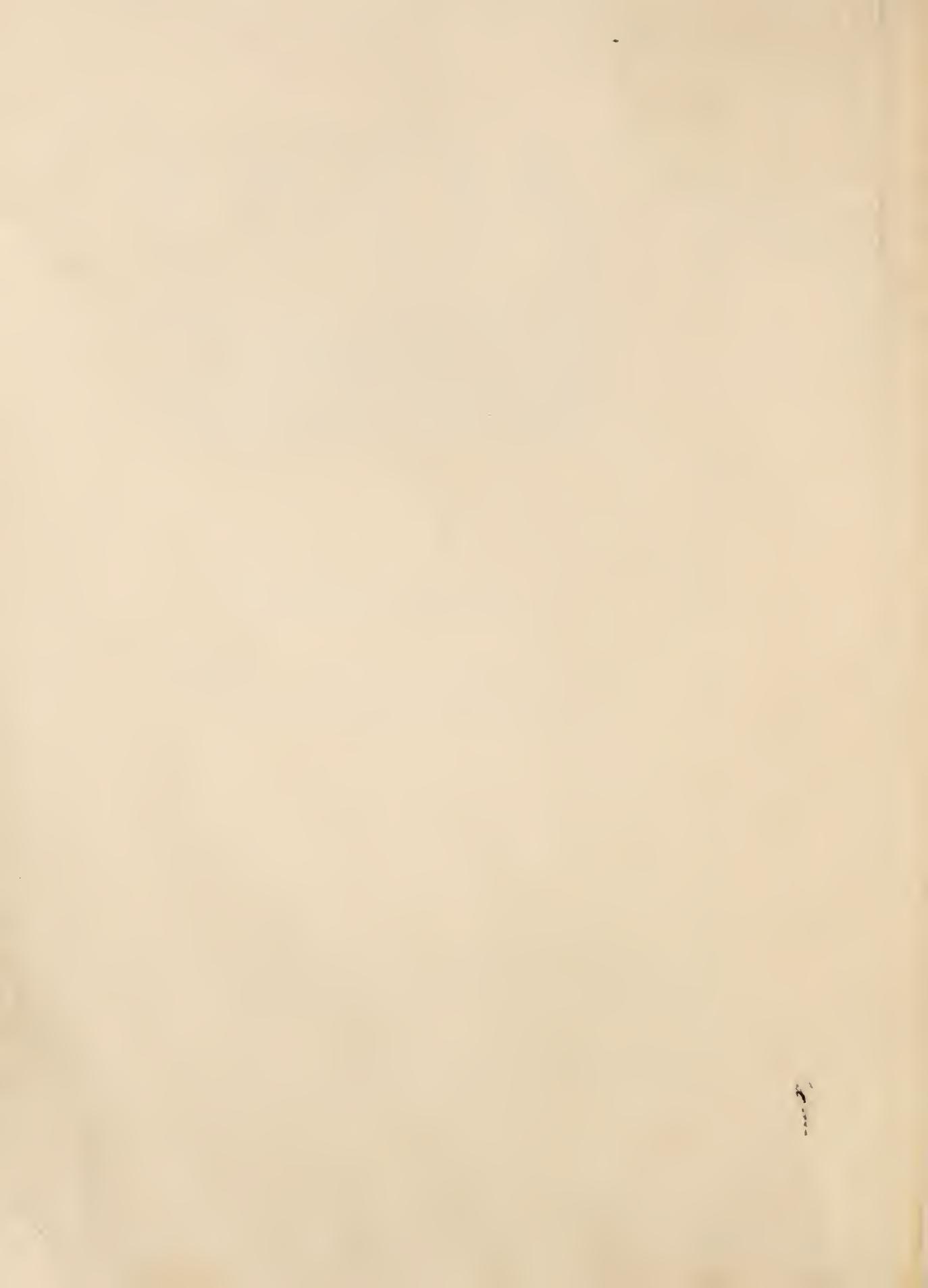


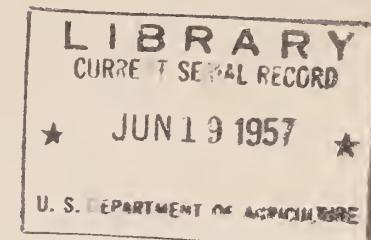
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FAMILY ECONOMICS REVIEW



² U.S. Institute of Home Economics, ^{X✓} Agricultural Research Service,
UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE

Prepared for home agents and home economics specialists of the Agricultural Extension Service, this publication reports current developments in family and food economics, and economic aspects of home management.

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OUR NEW NAMES

This is our first issue under two new names. On February 21, 1957, our organization became the Institute of Home Economics. The Institute, which is part of the Agricultural Research Service, is headed by Dr. Hazel K. Stiebeling. It is made up of three divisions--Household Economics Research, Clothing and Housing Research, and Human Nutrition Research.

Our new publication name, Family Economics Review, replaces Rural Family Living. The change was made so that the name would be a better indicator of the type of material included. Although topics of interest to and about rural families continue to have priority, more emphasis than formerly is being placed on those applicable to all families. This change is in response to requests from those who use the material.

FAMILY FINANCE

FARM FAMILY SPENDING IN 1955

Outlays of cash by farm operator families for family living in 1955 averaged \$3,309, according to a preliminary report of a survey of farmers' expenditures made early last year by the U. S. Department of Agriculture and the Bureau of the Census. About 4,000 farm operator families living in all parts of the United States cooperated by supplying information on their expenditures.

One of the main purposes of the study was to obtain data to use in modernizing the Index of Prices Paid by Farmers for Commodities Used in Family Living. This index, which is a regular feature of Family Economics Review (see page 13), is of interest to those who are concerned with levels of living because it shows how costs of total living of farm families and of the various items comprising the index change over time. The index is also an important tool of the Agricultural Marketing Service, which uses it in determining parity prices of farm products. The goods and services included in the present index are based on records of purchases made by farmers in the period 1938-1942. But prices, incomes, and levels of living have changed since then. Farm families are spending more money, and spending it differently today than in 1940. Therefore, new data were necessary in order to make the index reflect current buying habits of farmers, both as to kinds of goods and services purchased and the relative importance of each of these goods and services.

The total amount spent for family living varied among families whose farms were in different economic classes. Farms in economic classes I and II were the large farms, whose sales of farm products were valued at \$10,000 or more in 1954; class III to V farms had sales valued at \$1,200 to \$9,999; class VI to VIII farms included those with sales valued between \$250 and \$1,199, as well as part-time and residential farms. The proportion of the farms that were in each of these classes, and the average expenditures for family living reported by operator families on these farms were as follows:

	<u>Percent of farms</u>	<u>Average expenditure for family living</u>
Class I and II.....	14	\$5,070
Class III to V.....	45	\$3,212
Class VI to VIII.....	41	\$2,821

Table 1 shows how expenditures were divided among the various items of the family budget. For the 4,000 families as a whole, the allocation of total family living expenditures (including personal insurance and

gifts and contributions) was approximately one-fourth for food, one-fourth for housing (including new house construction and alterations as well as repairs, household operation, furnishings, and equipment), one-fourth for clothing and transportation together, and the remaining one-fourth for all other items.

More detailed information about farm operator family spending patterns will be available from this study later this year.

Table 1.--Average family living expenditures of farm operator families in 1955, by economic class of farm

Kind of expenditure	All families	Economic class of farm 1/		
		I and II	III-V	VI-VIII
Dollars				
Total family living.....	3,309	5,070	3,212	2,821
Food.....	833	1,081	803	782
Housing.....	868	1,486	839	692
Shelter 2/.....	351	658	329	273
Furnishings and equipment..	214	354	204	179
Household operation.....	303	474	306	240
Clothing.....	427	633	435	349
Transportation.....	378	543	332	373
Medical care.....	240	327	242	210
Recreation, reading, and education.....	168	287	169	126
Personal care, tobacco, and miscellaneous 3/.....	199	281	200	168
Personal insurance.....	86	220	80	48
Contributions and cash gifts.	110	212	112	73

1/ Based on status as determined for the 1954 Census of Agriculture, classes I & II include farms with value of sales of \$10,000 and over; classes III to V include farms with value of sales of \$1,200 to \$9,999; classes VI to VIII include farms with value of sales \$250 to \$1,199, part-time and residential farms.

2/ Includes cost of acquired dwellings, additions to owners' dwellings, repairs and alterations, a share of farm taxes and interest payments, insurance, settlement charges on purchased dwellings, and cash-rent paid for off-farm rented dwellings.

3/ Includes occupational expense, poll taxes, and personal property taxes.

SOCIAL SECURITY AS LIFE INSURANCE

Social security coverage for farm operators has now been in effect for about 2 years, and farmers will have made their second contribution to the social security fund when they paid their 1956 income tax. Farm families are probably well aware that with this contribution they are building toward a pension that will become available to them at retirement. They may not be aware that the same contribution is in effect also a premium on a life insurance policy that will provide a monthly income for the operator's wife and children if he dies insured while his family is growing up. This is a phase of the Old Age and Survivors Insurance (OASI) program which merits emphasis in family financial planning.

For the young farm family, the years of getting established in farming are usually years of large debt, small savings, modest income, and growing family responsibility. Death of the family head during this period may cause severe financial hardship for the widow and children, unless protection against this risk has been provided with an adequate insurance program. Farm families can look upon the survivors' insurance provisions of their social security as a definite part of this program, and should know what these provisions are, just as they should understand the provisions of the commercial insurance they carry.

Benefits to widows with children

Generally speaking, Old Age and Survivors Insurance provides a monthly income for the widow 1/ with one or more children under 18 years of age if her husband was either currently or fully insured at the time of his death. 2/ The size of this monthly payment is determined by the average earnings of her husband for a specified period before his death, and by whether she has one or more than one child. At present the schedule of payments is as shown in table 2 (page 4).

A widow who has more than two children will receive the same or approximately the same amount as a widow with two children. She will continue to receive the payments until the children reach the age of 18, or until they marry or become self-supporting if this occurs before they

1/ A divorced or separated wife with children under 18 in her care is eligible for a widow's benefits if her insured husband was contributing at least one-half of her support at the time of his death.

2/ A person is "currently insured" if he has at least 6 quarters of social security coverage within the preceding 3 years. He is "fully insured" if he has 1 quarter of coverage for each 2 quarters after 1950, or if he has quarters of coverage in all but $\frac{1}{4}$ of the calendar quarters after 1954. After he has earned 40 quarters of coverage he is fully insured for life.

Table 2.--Monthly benefits to widows and children from Old Age and Survivors Insurance

Average annual earnings of husband (a)	Approximate monthly benefit payment to--					
	Widow with child(ren) under 18			Orphan child(ren) under 18		
	1 child (b)	2 children (c)	3 children (d)	1 child (e)	2 children (f)	3 children (g)
Dollars						
\$600.....	45	50	50	30	38	50
\$1200.....	83	83	83	41	69	83
\$1800.....	103	120	120	51	86	120
\$2400.....	118	157	160	59	98	137
\$3000.....	133	177	200	66	111	155
\$3600.....	148	197	200	74	123	173
\$4200 or over.....	163	200	200	81	136	190

are 18. An exception is made if there is a totally disabled child, in which case payments will be continued after he is 18. If the widow remarries, her portion of the benefit payment will be discontinued but the children's will go on. If the widow earns over \$1,200 per year in net self-employment income or in gross salary or wages, her payments will be reduced. In general, for each \$80 (or fraction of \$80) over \$1,200 that she earns in a calendar year, her benefits will be reduced by an amount equal to one month's payments. However, no matter how much she earns in a year, she will receive a payment for any month in which she earns \$80 or less and does little or no work in self-employment.

It is evident that the benefits paid to survivors will provide no more than a minimum living. Many men, particularly those with large families, will want to supplement the OASI protection with savings and with additional insurance, purchased from commercial companies. This type of insurance will, of course, cost considerably more than an equivalent amount of protection under Old Age and Survivors Insurance.

Benefits to orphaned children

Provision is also made for payments of monthly benefits for dependent children under 18 years of age where there is no widow. The amounts allowed for one, two, and three children are shown in columns (e) to (g) of the table. The maximum amounts payable for a family of orphaned children are the same as the maximum amounts for a widow with children--that is, those shown in column (d). If a child marries or becomes self-supporting before he reaches his 18th birthday, his payments will be discontinued.

Lump sum death benefit

In addition to the monthly payments to survivors, a lump sum death benefit will be paid to the widow, or if there is no widow, to the person who paid the burial expenses of the insured man. The amount of this lump sum varies with the average monthly earnings of the insured person, up to a maximum of \$255.

Benefits to elderly widows

The widow of a worker who was fully insured under social security is eligible to receive monthly benefits beginning when she is 62 years of age and continuing the rest of her life. The amounts of these payments are the same as those for one child (column e in the table). If she remarries, the payments will be discontinued. If she earns more than \$1,200 a year, her payments will be reduced as in the case of the younger widow described above, except that after she is 72 years old this limitation on income does not apply and she may receive the full payment regardless of earnings.

If a widow of a fully insured worker is young when her husband dies, the period after her children reach 18 years of age and before she is 62, during which time she will receive no social security benefits, may be a number of years. A skill that will enable her to earn a living will be useful to her during this time.

The rules vary

These are the high spots of the survivorship provisions of the Old Age and Survivors Insurance program. But there are many rules for individual cases. It is impossible to discuss all of these here--even unwise if it were possible, because they would only confuse. Each situation presents special problems, for which plans will be made at the appropriate time by persons qualified to make them. Local social security offices provide this service.

HOW MUCH DOES COLLEGE COST?

By this time of year, most high school seniors will have decided whether they intend to go to college next fall. If they plan to go, they and their families are probably working on problems of financing for the college years. A preliminary report of a study done by the Office of Education of expenditures of college students provides some useful information for these families.

The expenditures of full-time undergraduate students at public colleges this year will average about \$1,500, and at private colleges about \$2,000. These figures are estimates based on the expenditures, during the 1952-53 school year, of 15,000 students who were included in the survey. These students, who attended colleges throughout the country, gave information on their living costs--tuition, fees, books, supplies and equipment, etc. The expenses estimated for the 1956-57 school year take into account increases since 1952-53 in the cost of living and of tuition and other educational needs. The increases in total cost amount to 19 percent for private and 34 percent for tax-supported schools.

During the 1952-53 school year, expenditures per student ranged from \$200 to \$5,500, with an average for all students of \$1,300. Spending varied by class level of the student, sex, location of the college, type of college, field of study in which the student was enrolled, and living arrangements. Freshmen and sophomores spent about \$50 less than the average, juniors and seniors about \$80 more than the average. Boys spent about \$100 more than girls (\$1,337 and \$1,240, respectively). Students in schools in the northeast region of the country reported expenditures averaging considerably higher than those in other regions. The average was \$1,676 for the Northeast, \$1,262 for the North Central region, \$1,209 for the West, and \$1,164 for the South. Expenses in tax-supported institutions were about one-third less than in private colleges and universities.

	<u>Public</u>	<u>Private</u>
Universities.....	\$1,255	\$1,754
Technological institutes....	1,283	1,532
Liberal arts colleges.....	1,022	1,432
Junior colleges.....	951	1,762
Teachers' colleges.....	868	--

Students majoring in the humanities reported highest average expenditures (\$1,577), those in education the lowest (\$1,059). Between these two, in descending order of amount spent were social science, engineering, biological science, medicine, physical science, and agriculture. These differences among areas of specialization may be related to types and locations of the institutions offering them. For instance, lower costs for schooling in education are possible because a large proportion of students in this field attend teachers' colleges.

Students who go to nearby schools and live at home have an advantage over others, of course, since board and room represent a large part of total college expense. In 1952-53, students living at home averaged expenditures about \$350 less than those living in college dormitories or in other private homes, and almost \$650 less than those living in fraternity or sorority houses or other clubs.

Although most families contribute the major portion of the expenses of their children in college, many students help. The Office of Education study showed that the average student received about three-fifths of his

college expenses from his parents or other relatives, either from current income or from savings built up for the child before he reached college age. The students themselves provided over one-fourth of the money from earnings during the school year or summer vacations. Two-thirds of the men and one-half of the women worked to help finance their college courses. About 13 percent of the students' budgets came from scholarships, veterans' benefits, loans, and miscellaneous sources. It is interesting to note that nearly 10 percent of the students were from homes in which the family income totaled less than \$3,000 per year.

That expenditures of individual students may be far different from these averages is indicated by the range in the amounts reported in this study--from \$200 to \$5,500. If the student has decided upon the college he will attend, he may find in the college catalog much useful information about expenses to be anticipated.

WORKING WOMEN ARE OLDER 1/

The U. S. labor force was larger by 1.5 million workers last year than in 1955, and 65 percent of the additional workers were women. This continued, at an accelerated pace, the general trend of recent years toward an increased rate of employment among women.

One noteworthy thing about the women who hold jobs, in addition to their increasing importance both in terms of actual numbers and as a proportion of the total female population, is the fact that as a group they are older than they used to be. The entrance of older women into the labor force has increased steadily since 1940 (chart 1). The proportion of all women aged 45 to 54 who were in the annual average labor force 2/ almost doubled between 1940 and 1956 (24 percent and 46 percent at the respective dates). Increases in the employment rate for the 35-to-44 and the 55-to-64-year age groups were large too. During this same period, however, the proportion of younger women--those 20 to 24 years old--in jobs dropped slightly. The result of these changes is that the general age level of employed women as a whole shifted upward. The median age of women in the labor force was about 39 years in 1956, as compared to 32 years in 1940 and 35 years in 1947.

1/ This article is based on the following reports of the U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: Annual Report of the Labor Force, 1956, Series P-50, No. 72; Projections of the Labor Force in the U. S., 1955-1975, P-50, No. 69; and Illustrative Statistics on Labor Force, P-50, No. 61.

2/ The "annual average" is the sum of the 12 monthly figures from the monthly reports on the labor force, divided by 12. Labor force in this article includes Armed Forces. A person was considered in the labor force if he was at work or looking for work in the survey week.

Chart 1



Source: Bureau of the Census.

Several explanations are suggested for this change in the age characteristics of working women. High marriage rates, early marriages, high birth rates, and increased college enrollments account for the drop in employment of the 20- to 24-year old women. A restricted supply of young workers, due to the low birth rate of the '30's, and of older male workers due to increased retirement of men past 65, coupled with a strong demand for labor to maintain our country's high rate of production, has made many jobs available to middle-aged women. So with jobs to be had, and a desire "to obtain some share for their families in the generally rising standard of living" 3/, many middle-age and older women have sought employment outside their homes. Women in their forties have been particularly active in this pursuit.

It is also surmised that the many women who held jobs during the war found it easy to return to work when their children were grown. Possibly the greater ease of housework, with the new labor-saving equipment and prepared and partially-prepared food products is another factor in bringing housewives into paid employment. Wives with spouses now make up about 53 percent of all women workers, as compared to 41 percent in early post-war years.

It seems likely that there will be 8 or 9 million more workers in the United States in 1965 than there were in 1956, and that about half of the increase may be women, according to estimates of the Census Bureau. It is

3/ Bureau of the Census. Series P-50, No. 69, p. 2.

anticipated that the rate of employment of women 35 to 44 years old may spurt ahead during this period. This conclusion is based on two trends that have been noted. The first of these is the tendency for women to complete their families earlier, even though they are having more children. By the time the mothers are 35 or so their children may all be in school, leaving them free to enter the labor force. Second, the trend toward more years of schooling means that a higher proportion of the 35-to-44 age group will have been to college. This points to a higher employment rate, because women with some college training are more likely to be in the labor force than those of the same age with fewer years of schooling.

TRADING STAMPS 1/

One of the most controversial issues in today's fight for the consumer's dollar is the use of trading stamps. Even grocers, who traditionally have not used as many promotional devices as other merchants, appear to be using stamps in ever increasing numbers. Today many independent supermarkets, superettes, small chain groceries, and several of the largest chains are issuing stamps in cities in almost all sections of the country. This report considers some of the implications of trading stamps, as relating to consumers.

Surveys have shown that in localities where stamps are available the majority of consumers save them. It is estimated that in 1956 about half of all families in the United States were saving stamps.

Returns consumers get for stamps

Though some retailers redeem stamps with cash or merchandise from their stores, more often stamps are exchanged for merchandise provided by the stamp company. Recent catalogs from two leading stamp companies offered a choice of about 500 items. Between two-thirds and three-fourths of these required 1 to 3 books of stamps. For the few items that could be identified as the same or nearly so in both catalogs, the number of stamps needed was the same for both companies.

If stamps were available only at food stores it would take a family spending \$25 a week for food about 5 or 6 weeks to fill a book of 1,500 stamps, provided they bought all food at stores issuing the same brand of stamps. Thus, it would take 5 to 18 weeks to save enough stamps for the majority of the items offered in the catalogs. It would take this family $2\frac{1}{4}$ years and an expenditure of about \$3,000 to save enough stamps to ob-

1/ Excerpts from Trading Stamps and the Consumer's Food Bill, Agricultural Marketing Service, Marketing Research Report No. 169 (May 1957). This bulletin is available upon request from the U. S. Department of Agriculture, Office of Information, Washington 25, D. C.

tain the article that required the largest number of stamps. It is fairly common, however, for other types of businesses in a market area to give the same kind of stamps, making it possible to complete a book in a shorter time.

Some consumers have little concept of the money value of a book of stamps. In a recent study about one-third of those saving stamps had no estimate of the value, and almost one-half estimated it to be between \$2 and \$4. Judging from available information, this range seems to be about what the actual variation in value per book of stamps is, even for merchandise offered by the same stamp company.

A small pricing study of stamp redemption merchandise was done in Washington, D. C., in November 1956. About 25 articles shown in a stamp company's catalog that could be reasonably well identified were priced in 4 department stores and 13 discount houses. The articles were largely electrical appliances and housewares, which are among the most popular redemption merchandise. Several prices were obtained for each item; these prices were averaged by type of outlet (department store and discount house). To estimate the value of a book of stamps, these average prices were divided by the number of books required for the item. For example, if the retail list price for an item is \$17.95 and it can be obtained for 4-4/5 books, one book would be equivalent to \$3.74. Assuming an expenditure of \$150 for collecting the 1,500 stamps, this would represent a return of about $2\frac{1}{2}$ cents for each dollar spent.

This study showed the possibility of wide variation in money value of a book of trading stamps (table 3). Based on manufacturers' list prices, the value ranged from \$3.42 to \$5.22, with a median of \$3.74. The return on an expenditure of \$150 ranged from about 2.3 to 3.5 percent when manufacturers' list prices were used, and from 1.5 to 2.3 percent when discount house prices were used. Similar studies made in other cities have shown about the same variation.

Implications to consumers

Though it is difficult to show conclusively whether consumers are getting a bargain or paying a premium for food in stores using trading stamps, there are a number of things to be considered. First, maintaining a stamp plan is an expense to the merchant. It has been estimated that on the average he pays about $2\frac{1}{2}$ percent of gross sales to the stamp company for the right to issue stamps, for the stamps, books, and advertising. He may also incur other expenses. With the comparatively low mark-up on most foods, this extra cost must be offset in some way. It may be partially offset without raising prices by (1) reducing unit costs as a result of increasing the quantity of merchandise sold; (2) reducing other forms of promotion; and (3) stocking items other than food that have higher mark-up.

Table 3.--Average dollar value per book of stamps and rate of return on \$150 expenditure based on manufacturers' list prices and average department and discount house prices, Washington, D. C., November 1956

Item	Stores giving prices	Dollar value per book of stamps based on average--			Average rate of return 1/		
		List prices		Depart- ment store 2/ prices	List prices	Depart- ment store 2/ prices	Discount house prices
		Number	Dollars	Dollars	Percent	Percent	Percent
Portable mixer.....	13	3.74	2.53	2.40	2.49	1.69	1.60
Automatic toaster (A).....	12	3.74	2.53	2.51	2.49	1.69	1.67
Automatic toaster (B).....	5	3.74	2.70	2.70	2.49	1.80	1.80
Steam-dry iron.....	14	3.74	2.46	2.45	2.49	1.64	1.64
Roaster-oven.....	6	3.46	2.63	2.45	2.31	1.75	1.63
Aluminum 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ qt. dutch oven.....	3	--	4.07	--	--	2.71	--
Dictionary.....	2	--	3.33	--	--	2.22	--
All items priced.....	25	--	--	--	--	--	--
Median value.....	--	3.74	2.98	2.51	2.50	1.99	1.67
Range in value.....	--	3.46-5.22	1.70-4.25	2.32-3.44	2.31-3.43	1.13-2.83	1.55-2.29

1/ Based on a rate of 1 stamp for each 10-cent purchase and an expenditure of \$150 to fill a book of 1,500 stamps.
 2/ Do not have to maintain manufacturers' list prices.

Source: U. S. D. A. Marketing Research Report No. 169, p. 6.

If any cost is passed on in increased prices, consumers may not share it equally. Those who do not save stamps may pay part of the bill for those who do. If prices are raised only on luxury foods, the cost will fall on those buying such products. And those who can buy goods at discount prices will receive a lower rate of return on their stamps than those who buy at manufacturers' list prices.

Until more information is available, no generalizations can be drawn as to whether a consumer gets something for nothing, pays part, all, or more than the cost of similar merchandise bought for cash. This may vary from community to community, store to store, even within the same store at different periods of time. A trading stamp catalog or the redemption center should be shopped as carefully as if a cash purchase were being made. Consumers must evaluate retail prices and quality of merchandise obtained with stamps, the same as they would in any buying situation.

CONSUMER PRICES

The Index of Prices Paid by Farmers for Commodities Used in Family Living rose one point from March to April 1957 (table 4). The April index of 117 for all commodities represented an increase of about 4 percent over a year ago. Only two items, food and household operation increased between December and March.

The Consumer Price Index for City Wage Earner and Clerical-Worker Families remained at 119 in March (table 5). The March index for all items was about 4 percent higher than a year ago. Prices of fuels and transportation rose about 7 percent during the year; food, household operation, and medical care increased 4 percent. The remaining items rose 2 to 3 percent, except gas and electricity, which rose less than 1 percent.

FOOD

ESTIMATED COST OF ONE WEEK'S FOOD, MARCH 15, 1957

Table 6 (page 14) presents the estimated cost of one week's food to be prepared and served at home. The estimate is based on the quantities of food in the low- and the moderate-cost food plans published in the March 1955 issue of Rural Family Living, also reproduced as Food Plans at Low and Moderate Cost, FE 86 (interim revision of plans in Helping Families Plan Food Budgets). The weekly cost of food for a specific family can be estimated, since costs are given for individuals of different ages and degrees of activity. The costs presented here are based on March 15, 1957, average prices in 46 cities.

Table 4.--Index of Prices Paid By Farmers for Commodities
Used in Family Living (1947-49 = 100)
April 1956; August 1956-April 1957

Item	Apr. 1956	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan. 1957	Feb.	Mar.	Apr.
All commodities.....	112	115	114	114	115	116	116	116	116	117
Food and tobacco...	--	--	113	--	--	113	--	--	115	--
Clothing.....	--	--	112	--	--	113	--	--	113	--
Household operation	--	--	112	--	--	113	--	--	115	--
Household furnishings.....	--	--	107	--	--	108	--	--	108	--
Building materials, house.....	--	--	120	--	--	120	--	--	120	--
Autos and auto supplies.....	--	--	130	--	--	136	--	--	136	--

Source: Agricultural Marketing Service.

Table 5.--Consumer Price Index for City Wage Earner
and Clerical-Worker Families (1947-49 = 100)
March 1956; August 1956-March 1957

Item	Mar. 1956	Aug.	Sept.	Oct.	Nov.	Dec.	Jan. 1957	Feb.	Mar.
All items.....	115	117	117	118	118	118	118	119	119
Food.....	109	113	113	113	113	113	113	114	113
Apparel.....	105	106	106	107	107	107	106	106	107
Housing.....	121	122	122	123	123	124	124	124	125
Rent.....	132	133	133	133	134	134	134	134	134
Gas and electricity...	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112	112
Solid fuels and fuel oil.....	131	130	130	133	134	136	139	139	139
Housefurnishings.....	103	103	103	104	104	104	104	105	105
Household operation...	122	123	124	124	124	125	125	126	126
Transportation.....	127	128	129	133	133	133	134	134	135
Medical care.....	131	133	134	134	134	135	135	136	136
Personal care.....	119	120	120	121	121	122	122	123	123
Reading and recreation..	108	108	108	108	109	109	110	110	110
Other goods and services	121	122	123	123	123	123	124	124	124

Source: Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Table 6 ---Estimated cost of one week's food, 1/ March 15, 1957

Age and activity groups	Low-cost adequate diet	Moderate-cost adequate diet
	<u>Dollars</u>	<u>Dollars</u>
<u>FAMILIES</u>		
Family of two <u>2/</u>	13.50	16.50
Family of four with preschool children <u>3/</u> ...	18.00	22.50
Family of four, school age children <u>4/</u>	21.50	26.00
<u>INDIVIDUALS</u>		
Children:		
1-3 years.....	3.00	3.50
4-6 years.....	3.75	4.50
7-9 years.....	4.50	5.25
Girls, 10-12 years.....	5.00	6.00
13-15 years.....	5.25	6.50
16-20 years.....	5.25	6.50
Boys, 10-12 years.....	5.25	6.25
13-15 years.....	6.25	7.75
16-20 years.....	7.00	8.50
Women:		
Sedentary.....	5.00	6.00
Moderately active.....	5.50	6.75
Very active.....	6.00	7.75
Pregnant.....	6.50	7.50
Nursing.....	7.75	9.00
60 years or over.....	5.00	5.75
Men:		
Sedentary.....	5.50	6.75
Physically active.....	6.00	7.75
With heavy work.....	7.50	9.75
60 years or over.....	5.50	6.50
Per capita.....	5.50	6.75

1/ These estimates were computed from quantities in low- and moderate-cost food plans, published in March 1955 issue of Rural Family Living, with prices from Average Retail Prices of Food in 46 Large Cities Combined, released periodically by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. Estimates for individuals have been rounded to nearest \$0.25 and for families to the nearest half dollar.

2/ Physically active man and sedentary woman. Twenty percent added for small families.

3/ Physically active man; moderately active woman; children, 1-3 and 4-6 years.

4/ Physically active man; moderately active woman; child 7-9; and boy, 10-12 years.

INCOME DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY FOOD CONSUMPTION AND DIETARY LEVELS

The nature of the relationship between a family's total spendable income and the amount it spends for food is well known. On the average, families increase the amount they spend for food as income increases, but at a proportionately slower rate so that the percent going for food is less for high-income families. We know, too, that some of this increased spending goes for larger quantities of many foods, and much of it goes for increased services in the form of foods requiring less preparation by the homemaker and also to meals purchased away from home. A recent nationwide food consumption survey made in the spring of 1955 by the U. S. Department of Agriculture confirms these facts and provides quantitative measures of them.

Food expenditures.--On the average, food expenditures of city families of 2 or more persons were about \$3 a week (about \$150 a year) higher for each \$1,000 that income for the year was higher. For farm families the average difference for each \$1,000 of income was \$2 a week. These figures represent the average effect of adding \$1,000 to family income. However, at low incomes a considerably larger portion of an income increase goes for food. For example, a low-income city family with \$1,000 more to spend would use 28 percent of the extra money for food, but a high-income family receiving \$1,000 more would spend only 5 percent of it on additional food purchases.

For purposes of discussion, we have selected three groups of city families--a low-income group (\$2,000-\$2,999), the median-income group (\$4,000-\$4,999), and a high one (\$6,000-\$7,999). In the median-income group the food purchased in the survey week represented an annual rate of 37 percent of family income, compared with 48 percent of income in the low-income group and only 29 percent for the high-income families. The average food cost for the week was \$23.25 per low-income family, \$31.60 for a family in the median group, and \$37.50 per high-income family. High-income city families used nearly one-fourth of their food dollars for meals and other food away from home, and the low-income families only one-eighth.

These are average patterns--but some families with low incomes spent as much or more for food as some with high incomes. For example, 1 out of 4 city families with low incomes served food at home valued at \$9 or more per person, while 1 out of 4 of the high-income families used food valued at less than \$7 per person.

Food quantities.--The high-income city families purchased larger quantities of most foods--more than enough to make up for their larger family size. 1/ The larger amounts of baked goods and smaller amounts of

1/ See charts 56 (10) 351 and 352, page 33, 1957 Agricultural Outlook Chart Book (November 1956) for charts illustrating this.

flour and cereals in the high-income families, like the greater share of their money spent for eating out, typify the shift from services provided by the homemaker to those performed for her as more money becomes available.

Although there are considerable differences in the quantities of specific foods used and the money outlay for them by families at different incomes, the division of the food dollar among the major food groups does not change. For example, the high-income family bought over 4 pounds more fresh fruits and vegetables than the low-income family, yet in both groups 9 cents of each food dollar went for these foods. Similarly, the family with high income used 3 pounds more meat, poultry, and fish than the low-income family, yet in each case these foods took 33 cents of the food dollar. In both groups, as well as the median-income families, the division of the food dollar is for all practical purposes the same as that for all urban families. This finding, noted in earlier studies as well, is of interest to those who help families plan food budgets.

Food choices.--Families with more money to spend often chose more costly foods within a food group. For example, the low-income families paid, on the average, 56 cents a pound for meat, while the median- and high-income families paid 62 and 66 cents, respectively. The low-income families had less beef than the other families, and when using beef were less likely to choose steak and other relatively expensive cuts. Steak (other than round) appeared on the menu during the week in 24 percent of the low-income families, and in 37 and 44 percent, respectively, of the median- and high-income households.

Although the amount of fats and oils used by households increased relatively little with income, the average price paid per pound increased. For the three groups of city families considered here, the price per pound went from 34 cents at the low incomes to 37 at the median and 40 cents at the high. This meant, among other things, a drop in the percent of households using lard from 27 percent at low incomes to 10 percent at the high, and a rise in the percent using salad or cooking oils from 18 to 33. Families with more money to spend were more likely to have butter and less likely to have only margarine as the following percents of urban households using each show:

Item used:	<u>Low-income</u>	<u>Median-income</u>	<u>High-income</u>
	<u>Percent of households</u>		
Any table fat.....	97	99	99
Butter only.....	30	34	41
Butter and margarine.	21	27	27
Margarine only.....	46	38	31

This pattern for use of table fats, however, is more pronounced for North Central and Northeast city families than for those in the South and West. In the latter regions the families were less likely to use butter and more likely to use margarine than in the rest of the country.

Processed foods, too, were more likely to appear on the shopping lists of families with higher incomes, as illustrated by the percent of urban households using commercially canned or frozen fruits and vegetables:

Food group:	<u>Low-income</u>	<u>Median-income</u>	<u>High-income</u>
	<u>Percent of households</u>		
Frozen fruits and vegetables.....	26	43	55
Canned fruits and vegetables.....	86	91	90
Fruit and vegetable juices (fresh, canned, or frozen). .	55	72	78

Income differences in food consumption among rural farm and nonfarm families, not discussed here, are similar to those illustrated for urban families. Because rural families produce some of their food the differences in food consumption with change in income are not quite so marked as for city families, although probably greater than many persons believe. Producing food at home often means using more total food rather than buying less. After a certain point--which differs with family income and with the kinds of food produced--increased home production brings little reduction in food expense.

Dietary levels.--Paralleling the differences in food consumption, the diets of higher income families contain larger quantities of nearly all nutrients than do those of low-income groups. The differences, measured in the 1955 survey, were particularly marked between the low and the middle incomes. For example, only 58 percent of the low-income city families used food furnishing the recommended amounts of calcium, compared to 73 percent of the median-income group. Ascorbic acid levels rose sharply with income throughout the income scale, as did consumption of fresh fruits and fruit juices.

Despite the fact that the more people spend for food, the more likely they are to have good diets, there are still many high-income families whose diets are not up to recommended levels. Thiamine levels for example are little related to family income. Sources of thiamine are chiefly grain products, meats (especially lean pork) and milk. Although consumption of milk and meat increases with income, that of grain products and of lean pork cuts generally decreases. Hence, thiamine levels remain about the same. This indicates that a nutrition program for a prospering economy should emphasize thiamine.

Continued prosperity could also mean that more families would add milk and fruits and vegetables to their diets. But even under the most favorable economic conditions, good sources of calcium and ascorbic acid need to be emphasized.

Because of home food production, which dollarwise even now makes up 40 percent of the average farm family's food, dietary levels of farm families are, generally speaking, less related to their money incomes than are the dietary levels of city families.--Mollie Orshansky and Corinne LeBovit.

REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN FAMILY FOOD CONSUMPTION AND DIETARY LEVELS

With the U. S. covering so large a geographic area we would expect to find regional variation in food patterns, if only because of differences in the kinds of food produced. We might also anticipate some differences lingering on to remind us of the ethnic groups that originally settled the various parts of the country.

The nationwide food survey done by the Department of Agriculture in the spring of 1955 shows that there are indeed regional differences, but generally they are slight and often no greater than those among families of different income groups within a region. Of the four broad regions identified in this survey--Northeast, North Central, South, and West--it could be said that the South was more different from the other regions than they were from each other.

Food expenditures were lower in the South. For the total spent for food at home and away from home by families of 2 or more persons, the averages for a week in spring 1955 were: For the Northeast and the West, \$32; for the North Central, \$30; and for the South, \$23. Relatively less of the southern food dollar went for food away from home. Since the southern families were larger, differences per person were relatively greater.

On the whole, North Central families used more milk and milk products, more meat, potatoes, fresh or home-preserved fruits, and commercial baked goods than other families but less fresh or home-processed vegetables. In the South, families had considerably more flour and cereals and fresh vegetables than in other regions, more fats and sugars, and less milk, meat, and commercial baked goods.

Because the division of the population between urban and rural is not the same in all parts of our country, many of the seemingly regional differences are actually differences between urban and rural food habits.

Dietary levels.--Although regional differences in food consumption are not large there are still some important differences in dietary levels among the four regions. Diets of households in the North Central region and the West were much alike in nutritive content, and the Northeast had diets that were not very different except in thiamine. In the South, levels of most nutrients were lower than in the other regions.

Following are the proportions of households in each region with food that did not furnish the amounts of six of the key nutrients recommended by the National Research Council:

	<u>Northeast</u> <u>Pct.</u>	<u>North Central</u> <u>Pct.</u>	<u>South</u> <u>Pct.</u>	<u>West</u> <u>Pct.</u>
Protein.....	7	5	12	5
Calcium.....	28	26	34	26
Vitamin A.....	12	13	26	11
Thiamine.....	22	14	15	16
Riboflavin.....	18	16	25	15
Ascorbic acid.....	17	19	37	23

In the Northeast, the percentage of families with diets below the recommended level for thiamine was considerably larger than in any other part of the country. Food supplies in that region were also slightly lower in calories and iron. Lower caloric content of the diets is accounted for by lower consumption of grain products, fats and oils, and sweets. Lower grain consumption also affected the amounts of thiamine and iron. Thiamine was affected too by lower consumption of pork, which is much higher in that nutrient than other meats.

Diets in the South were lower in calcium, riboflavin, niacin, protein, and vitamins A and C than diets in other regions because they contained less milk and milk products, less meat, poultry, and fish, and less fruit and vegetables. By using considerably more grain products, however, the southern families obtained as much iron and thiamine as the others obtained from larger amounts of meat and milk. The grain products also contributed considerable amounts of protein, calcium, riboflavin, and niacin, but not enough to bring the diets up to the levels of the other regions.

Some of the regional differences may be reflections of differences in the characteristics of the populations being compared. Income, one factor influencing food consumption was lower in the South than in other regions. Another characteristic that affects food consumption is urbanization. The Northeast and West, with only about one-twentieth of the households living on farms, are more urbanized than the South and the North Central, where the proportions are one-sixth and one-seventh, respectively. Farm families are likely to have more food in total pounds than nonfarm, although it is of lower money value. Quantities of milk, eggs, fats, sugars, sweets, and grains are larger in farm menus; quantities of meat, fruits, and vegetables are smaller. The larger quantities of food meant that the farm diets provided more calories. The higher milk consumption also meant more calcium and riboflavin and contributed to the higher amounts of protein and thiamine. Actually, farm diets provided more than urban of all nutrients except ascorbic acid and vitamin A.

In the South, in each urbanization group as well as in the region as a whole, larger proportions of households than in other regions had food that did not furnish recommended levels of protein, calcium, riboflavin, and vitamins A and C. Further analysis indicates that much of this difference is related to lower incomes.--Mollie Orshansky and Corinne LeBovit.

CAN YOU COUNT ON A GOOD DIET?

A point system for use with food guides provides a quick way to check daily food choices to make sure they add up to a good diet. This system is described in a recent U. S. Department of Agriculture publication. 1/

Food guides, such as the Basic 7 or the newer Daily Food Plan, are a familiar and popular device widely used in teaching people to choose foods that will provide the minerals, vitamins, and other dietary essentials they need. In such schemes foods that are similar in nutritive value are grouped together and a minimum number of servings from each group is suggested for a day. This is a first step towards guiding food choices that will lead to a good diet.

An unavoidable shortcoming of such guides is that even though foods within groups are alike in food value, they are not identical. This means consistently poor choices from groups could result in diets lower in some food factor than is desirable. For instance, milk and milk products are a basic group found in most food guides. Perhaps the most outstanding nutritional contribution of these foods is calcium, although they are also important for high-quality protein, riboflavin, and many other essentials. The foods that generally comprise the milk group--milk in various forms, cheese, and ice cream--differ widely in the amount of calcium they provide. If the user of the food guide routinely chooses certain cheeses or ice cream to replace milk in the diet, without regard to equivalent amounts, there is a likelihood that calcium will be in short supply.

While other food groups are particularly valuable for different nutrients--as an example, those featuring meat are important for protein and vegetables and fruits for vitamin A value and vitamin C--the same thing tends to be true. Some foods within each group are poorer than others as sources of specific key nutrients. For this reason, a point system was developed for use with the Daily Food Plan to show how common foods compare as providers of these key nutrients. (This system can also be adapted for use with other food guides.)

This is how the point system presented in Agriculture Information Bulletin No. 160 works. Foods are given point values on the basis of the amount of a particular nutrient they contain. As an example, in the vegetable-fruit group $\frac{1}{2}$ medium grapefruit scores 30 vitamin C points; an orange, 31; $\frac{1}{2}$ cup tomato juice, 8; and $\frac{1}{2}$ cup cooked collards, 13 points. About 20 familiar fruits and vegetables, high enough in vitamin C to be included as important sources of this nutrient, are rated in points. One or two servings of these fruits and vegetables, enough to provide the equivalent of at least 20 vitamin C points, are suggested daily.

1/ Essentials of an Adequate Diet, Agriculture Information Bulletin No. 160, November 1956.

Meals for a day might include an orange, which gives considerably more than the minimum 20 points suggested, or perhaps $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of tomato juice for breakfast and $\frac{1}{2}$ cup of collards at another meal, which together add to more than the 20 points. A daily serving of orange or grapefruit, week in and week out, isn't required to supply vitamin C needs. Instead, another fruit or a vegetable or combinations of two of them can take over the job part of the time. The important thing is that the total "points" for the servings of vegetables or fruits chosen add up to 20 or more.

This example illustrates one of the advantages of the point system--use of a greater variety of foods in meals which gives more flexibility in budgeting and also allows for food preferences of individuals, while assuring good nutrition. Other advantages are that simple whole numbers are used and that the same term "point" is employed for each key nutrient. Thus, it may be easier or more convenient for some to use this method to check substitutions within food groups or to rate dietary adequacy than to use conventional units such as grams, milligrams, and International Units in making calculations. Although the point system may not give as precise results as use of actual values, it does provide a quick way to check food selections.

The point system was developed primarily as an aid to choosing a nutritionally good diet, but it may also be useful in teaching the wise management of the family food dollar. This is illustrated below:

<u>Item</u>	<u>Size of serving</u>	<u>Cost of serving 1/</u> <u>Cents</u>	<u>Vitamin C points</u>	<u>Cost of 20 vit. C points</u> <u>Cents</u>
Orange.....	1 medium	5.0	31	3.2
Grapefruit.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ medium	4.8	30	3.2
Cantaloup.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ medium	12.5	24	10.4
Orange juice, canned.	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	3.3	19	3.5
Grapefruit juice, canned.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	2.2	17	2.6
Collards, fresh, cooked	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	7.2	13	11.1
Sweetpotato, baked...	1 medium	4.8	10	9.6
Cabbage, shredded....	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	.9	10	1.8
Potato, baked.....	1 medium	1.6	8	4.0
Tomato juice.....	$\frac{1}{2}$ cup	2.2 - 2.9	8	5.5 - 7.2

1/ August 1956 prices, Washington, D. C. chain food store.

From this example, it is readily apparent that at these prices raw cabbage is the best buy for vitamin C of those foods shown. Other comparisons quickly noted of differences in cost of a serving in relation to vitamin C furnished are between canned orange and grapefruit juice, both excellent sources of this vitamin, and between tomato juice and potatoes. In these cases, both foods provide about the same number of vitamin C points but vary somewhat in price.

In making such comparisons, it is well to remember that the season of the year and the locality will change the price relationships shown here, and that some foods are valuable for more than a single nutrient.-- Louise Page.

TEXTILES

TRENDS IN PRODUCTION OF TUFTED CARPETS

More and more of the room-sized rugs and carpets on the market are being made by a process called "tufting." The growth of this part of the carpet industry has occurred for the most part in the past six years. In 1951 the square yardage of tufted rugs and carpets produced amounted to only 10 percent as much as that of woven carpets. Throughout the year of 1956, shipments of tufted rugs and carpets amounted to 85 percent as much as woven carpet production. 1/ (Throughout this article "tufted rugs and carpets" refers only to floor coverings larger than 4 feet by 6 feet.)

The tufting machine was used originally in making robes, bedspreads, bathmats, and small scatter rugs. The first machine-made tufted products came from small enterprises, many from machines set up in homes. The many small mills, organized into an association of tufted textile manufacturers, were able to adapt the tufting process to the manufacture of room-size rugs and carpets. As demand for tufted floor coverings increased, larger firms, including some of the major woven carpet manufacturers, installed tufting machines. By 1951, 17 percent of the value of tufted products was in room-sized rugs and carpets--that is, those over 4 by 6 feet in size. Today well over half of the value of tufted products from the 100-odd mills producing them is in these rugs and carpets. Tufted carpets can now be made in widths up to 18 feet, just as woven carpeting can.

According to an industry spokesman, one of the major reasons for the rapid growth in tufted rugs and carpets is their lower selling price, as compared with woven floor coverings. This lower price is possible because it costs less to manufacture the tufted product than the woven one.

It has been estimated that enough looms to produce as many square yards of carpeting per hour as one tufting machine makes would cost about 20 times as much as the tufter. 2/ Tufting machines produce carpeting many times faster than looms, individual machines are less costly than looms, and do not require the skilled labor that is needed for loom operation.

1/ U. S. Department of Commerce and The Carpet Institute, Inc. Figures on square yardage of tufted rugs and carpets refer to shipments rather than production after mid-1953. For this reason comparisons with woven carpet production after that date may be understated, since some of the production may have gone into the building up of manufacturer's inventories.

2/ Modern Textiles, December 1956, p. 40.

A less important factor in the lower price of tufted floor coverings is the fact that they are made extensively of cotton, rayon, and acetate, all cheaper per pound than wool, which is still the major fiber used in woven carpets. The shift from cotton (used almost exclusively in the early tufted products) to other fibers has occurred gradually, as tufting manufacturers increased their production of rugs and carpets. During 1956, textile yarns used in manufacturing tufted floor coverings (over 4' by 6') were 28 percent cotton, 59 percent rayon and acetate, 5 percent wool, and 8 percent other fibers, including nylon, saran, and blends. 3/

Tufting is essentially a sewing process rather than a weave. The method is similar to rug hooking. A woven backing fabric is fed through the tufter. A row of needles--1,000 to 1,800 of them--each threaded with yarn from its own spool, penetrates the backing material simultaneously. Each yarn is caught by a hook and drawn through the fabric, forming the tuft. For cut pile, minute knives clip the loops as the needles leave the backing; for twist pile, an attachment twists the ends. A sculptured effect is achieved by shortening or lengthening loops through tension control. Finally a thick layer of rubber latex is applied to the backing, anchoring the loops in place and providing a skid-resistant base.

The growth in the use of tufted rugs and carpets may not have affected production of woven rugs to any great extent. The history of United States production of woven floor coverings during the past 30 years is one of ups and downs. For example, here are some of the high and low spots of the period. 4/

1923.....	83	million square yards
1933.....	42	" " "
1941.....	76	" " "
1942-1945 average.....	29	" " "
1948.....	90	" " "
1951.....	61	" " "

Thus, production of woven rugs and carpets was at an alltime high of 90 million square yards in 1948, but had dropped to 61 million square yards in 1951, just as tufted rugs entered the field in a form that could offer competition. Since 1951 production of woven floor coverings has continued at a fairly steady rate, or with relatively minor variations from year to year which do not seem to be closely related to changes in tufted production (Chart 2). Shipments of tufted floor coverings rose sharply, from 6 million square yards in 1951 to 54 million in 1956, but production of woven rugs was not reduced accordingly.

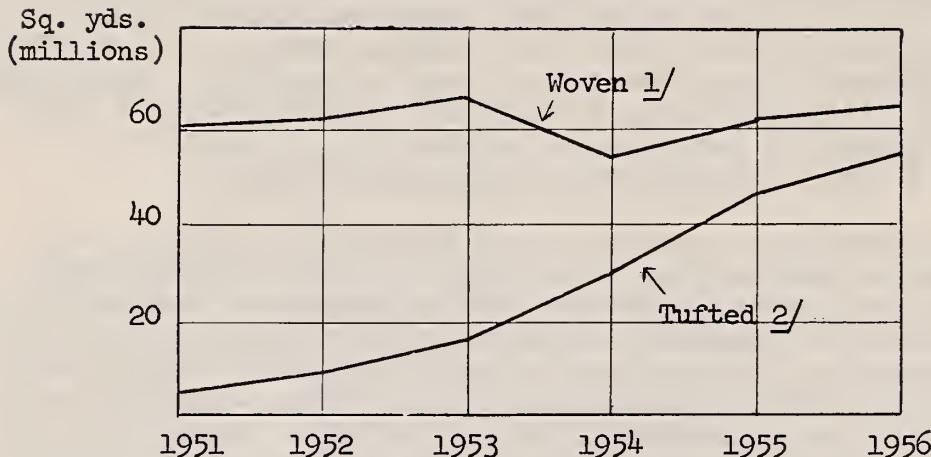
A possible explanation of this lack of effect on woven rug production is that the two types of floor coverings are for the most part not competitive in price. All-wool woven carpets continue to lead in sales in the higher priced lines. Tufted carpeting dominates in the middle and lower price ranges.

3/ U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census.

4/ Carpet Institute, Inc.

Chart 2

CARPET AND RUG PRODUCTION



1/ 1956 figure for woven product is preliminary.

2/ Figures for tufted product are for production through June 1953, for shipments thereafter.

Source: Bureau of the Census and Carpet Institute, Inc.

Specific price comparisons are difficult, as quality varies considerably. However, all-wool tufted carpets are reported to be in about the same price range as the lower priced woven carpets; those of rayon, cotton, and blends are still less expensive. The availability of less expensive carpeting has probably not only encouraged larger purchases by rug buyers, but has created a new market by making sales to some who would not otherwise have bought carpeting at all.--Barbara W. Kellogg.

STANDARDIZED PATTERN SIZING

The pattern industry's Measurement Standard Committee last year approved a new system of pattern sizing which is now in use throughout most of the industry. The industry anticipates that the new system will provide better fitting garments for many women. In addition, body measurements used for determining given pattern sizes are now the same, whereas previously there was considerable variation. Table 5 shows body measurements for selected sizes of patterns of the five major pattern companies under both the old and new systems of sizing. The column labeled "old" shows for each listed measurement the range used by the five companies prior to the change. The column labeled "new" shows the corresponding measurement now in use.

Table 5.--Body measurements for specified pattern sizes, old and new sizing systems. (All measurements in inches.)

Figure type	Body measurement for--					
	Size 9		Size 11		Size 13	
	Old 2/	New	Old 2/	New	Old 2/	New
Junior and junior miss: 1/						
Bust.....	28-29 $\frac{1}{2}$	30 $\frac{1}{2}$	29-30 $\frac{1}{2}$	31 $\frac{1}{2}$	31-31 $\frac{1}{2}$	33
Waist.....	23 $\frac{1}{2}$ -24 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$	23 $\frac{1}{2}$ -25 $\frac{1}{2}$	24 $\frac{1}{2}$	25-26 $\frac{1}{2}$	25 $\frac{1}{2}$
Hip.....	31-33 $\frac{1}{2}$	32 $\frac{1}{2}$	32-34 $\frac{1}{2}$	33 $\frac{1}{2}$	34-35 $\frac{1}{2}$	35
Back waist length....	14 $\frac{1}{2}$ -15	15	14-7/8- 15 $\frac{1}{4}$	15 $\frac{1}{4}$	15-1/4- 15-3/4	15 $\frac{1}{2}$
	Size 16		Size 18		Size 20	
Misses: 1/	Old 2/	New	Old 2/	New	Old 2/	New
Bust.....	34	36	36	38	38	40
Waist.....	28	28	30	30	32	32
Hip.....	37	38	39	40	41	42
Back waist length....	16 $\frac{1}{2}$ -17	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	16-3/4- 17-1/8	16-3/4	17- 17 $\frac{1}{4}$	17
	Size 40		Size 42		Size 44	
Women: 1/	Old 2/	New	Old 2/	New	Old 2/	New
Bust.....	40	3/42	42	3/44	44	3/46
Waist.....	34	34	36	36	38	38 $\frac{1}{2}$
Hip.....	43	44	45	46	47	48
Back waist length....	17-1/8- 17-3/8	17-1/8	17-1/4- 17-1/2	17 $\frac{1}{4}$	17-3/8- 17-5/8	17-3/8
	Size 14 $\frac{1}{2}$		Size 16 $\frac{1}{2}$		Size 18 $\frac{1}{2}$	
Half sizes: 1/	Old 2/	New	Old 2/	New	Old 2/	New
Bust.....	34-35	35	36-37	37	38-39	39
Waist.....	29	29	31	31	33	33
Hip.....	37-38	39	39-40	41	41-42	43
Back waist length....	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	15 $\frac{1}{2}$	15-3/4	15-3/4	16	16

1/ Junior and junior miss sizes range from 9-17; misses sizes, 10-20; women's sizes, 40-50; half sizes, 12 $\frac{1}{2}$ -24 $\frac{1}{2}$.

2/ Figures given as range for old pattern measurements are taken from catalogs and sewing books of five major pattern companies prior to the change to the new system. Additional variations may have occurred.

3/ One company uses bust measurement as size designation for women's sizes.

Both the bust and hip measure are larger in the new patterns than the old (bust up to $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches and hip up to 2 inches larger). In all junior, misses, and women's sizes the hip is now 2 inches larger than the bust; in half sizes it is $\frac{1}{4}$ inches larger. The difference was formerly 3 inches for most sizes. The new measurement of back waist length (from neck base to waistline) falls within the range of the old (with a single exception), but all variations within a given size have been eliminated. Thus, with the exception of half sizes where the reverse is true, the "modern" figure as depicted by the revised body measurements used by the pattern companies, has a smaller hip measurement in relation to bust. In addition, the waistline is considerably smaller in relation to both bust and hip measurements. These changes appear to be in line with the industry's stated reason for making the change--the appearance of a new figure type resulting from the use of modern foundation garments.

Under the new system, the logic of having women's sizes, such as size 44, relate to bust measurement has been lost. For example, a customer now requesting a size 44 pattern will not receive a pattern for a 44-inch, but one for a 46-inch bust measurement. However, one company has chosen not to conform to this part of the industry agreement, and continues to use bust measurement to indicate pattern size. A customer requesting a size 44 pattern from this company will receive one for a 44-inch bust measurement. Thus, confusion in buying patterns by size has not been completely eliminated.

The woman who has been accustomed to buying a size 40 women's pattern for a 40-inch bust measurement will find that this measurement is now a size 20 in the misses range, and does not appear in the women's patterns. Also, bust measurements below $30\frac{1}{2}$, formerly in the misses and juniors sizes, no longer appear in patterns for adults.

Although standardization of the major body measurements is now in effect, there is still some variation in the amount of ease allowed, shoulder slope and width, depth of armseye, and similar characteristics which affect consumer satisfaction. These characteristics are partially determined by the style of a garment and insofar as individual pattern companies interpret current fashions in different ways, there may be variations from company to company. In the past, pattern users usually found that patterns from certain companies fit them better than those from other companies, and this will probably still be the case.

The pattern measurement standard went into effect June 15, 1956. The industry had anticipated acceptance by their Measurement Standard Committee, so for some time prior to that date individual companies were making patterns with the new measurements. By the date of approval the changeover to the new system had been completed in the patterns themselves, but the newly-sized patterns had been placed in envelopes on which were printed the old size and measurement figures. Some of these pattern envelopes still seem to be in the stores even though all the pattern catalogs list the new measurements. A publication by the pattern industry states that all patterns now conform to the new measurements, regardless of measurements given on the pattern envelopes.

In 1954 the Commodity Standards Division of the Department of Commerce proposed a commercial standard for the sizing of women's patterns and apparel. This standard was based on a study done by the former Bureau of Home Economics, U. S. Department of Agriculture, in which actual measurements were taken on 10,000 women. The pattern industry standard is a compromise between the old pattern sizing and the proposed commercial standard, with actual measurements for a given size generally larger than the former, smaller than the latter. Relationships between bust, waist, and hip measurements (and particularly those in the middle and more popular sizes) are now closer to the relationships in the proposed commercial standard.--Barbara W. Kellogg.

